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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

Vocational-Education Conference

The Second Annual Conference of the Vocational Education Association of the Middle West was held at the Hotel LaSalle, Chicago, March 30 to April 1.

Five general topics were discussed, as follows: the Gary system; work for women; agricultural education; the relation between school and employment; and the principles and methods of differentiating educational opportunities at the seventh grade.

The feature of the discussion of the Gary system was an address by William E. Grady, principal of Public School 64, New York City, in which he compared the Gary and the Ettinger systems as seen in operation in that city. His contention was that the latter system is more appropriate for the metropolis than the former, but his opinion was not shared by the other speakers on the program, G. W. Swartz, assistant superintendent of instruction, and G. E. Wulfing, director of industrial education, both of Gary.

The most novel feature of the program on work for women was the discussion of department-store education by Miss Genevieve P. Reid, educational director of Marshall Field & Co., Chicago, and Mrs. Lucinda W. Prince, director of the School of Salesmanship, Boston. Mrs. Prince described a plan, now in active operation, whereby about four hundred high-school girls of Boston are taking

the regular high-school course, with high grades, and at the same time are practicing salesmanship one day a week in selected department stores, receiving one dollar a day for their service.

A number of notable speakers addressed the Agricultural Section, the programs of which were arranged by Richard L. Crampton, secretary of the Illinois Bankers' Association. Among others were Perry G. Holden, Chicago; C. H. Lane, chief specialist in agricultural education of the Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C.; E. J. Tobin, county superintendent of schools, of Cook County, Illinois; John S. Collier, county agriculturist, Kankakee, Illinois; K. L. Hatch of the University of Wisconsin; G. I. Christie, superintendent of the Department of Agricultural Extension, Purdue University, Indiana; Dean Eugene Davenport of the University of Illinois; and Albert H. Leake, inspector of manual training and household science, Ontario, Canada.

The discussions seemed to indicate a growing conviction that instruction in agriculture is an educational and an economic necessity second to none.

Some practical phases of vocational guidance were discussed by Alfred P. Fletcher, assistant superintendent of schools of Rochester, New York, and by representatives of various commercial and manufacturing interests in Chicago, showing a closer co-ordination of school and employment to be highly desirable.

At the last session of the convention junior high schools and prevocational schools were compared as to organization, curriculum, and dominant purpose. Special attention was given to the relation of these two organizations to the vocational-education movement. The visiting speakers were Ernest P. Wiles, principal of the Senior and Junior High School, Evansville, Indiana, and Paul C. Stetson, principal of the South High School, Grand Rapids, Michigan. The Chicago system was represented by Albert W. Evans, Principal of the Farragut School, who discussed the possibilities of prevocational work in the elementary school, and Miss Edith Brown, of the prevocational department of the Lane Technical School, who showed the great advantages of including a prevocational department in the traditional high-school organization.

The attendance at all the meetings was large, some of the audiences exceeding the capacity of the hall and numbering twelve or thirteen hundred people. This seems to indicate that the interest in the vocational-education movement is still growing.

School Finance

The city of Decatur, Illinois, is facing, as is many another city in the United States, serious financial problems in the management of its schools. It is, of course, the ambition of all school officers to supply the children of the community with all of the opportunities which can be bought with money. On the other hand, taxpayers are calling in question the wisdom of the present high rate of expenditure. Furthermore, many boards of education are compelled, in order to keep up the pace which they have set, to run behind. Thus the situation becomes grave.

It requires courage to take the step which has been taken in Decatur. The board, under the leadership of the superintendent, has first retrenched, and secondly gone frankly to the people of the city with a full discussion of the whole situation.

The following item from the *Daily Review* of that city gives some impression of the way in which this program was carried out:

> Nearly two hundred Decatur men and women made up an interested audience which heard Superintendent J. O. Engleman in the Decatur Club reception room Tuesday evening. Figures and statements were given which showed the exact financial situation and scholastic standing of the Decatur public-school system.
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> The "class period" extended over two hours, in which Mr. Engleman, with the aid of charts and long, comparative tables compiled from hundreds of authoritative school sources, dissected and analyzed the administrative, educational, and operation divisions of the local system, showing the expense, limitations, scope, and comparative qualities of each division.
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> The first important point made was that Decatur's per capita cost of instruction is less than the average in schools of the same rank throughout the country, and that the size of local classes, both high-school and grade, is greater than the average, proving that the financial stringency is not caused by extravagance in these expenditures.
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> Comparative figures showed that Decatur ranks high in holding its pupils, that a big percentage of pupils entering the first grade go through the eighth, and that the same sort of percentage enter high school.

"The school dollar is an interesting article," said the superintendent, and smiled at members of the board who were interested auditors. "We know that it is interesting. Every time a dollar is spent 73 cents goes for instruction, 14 cents for operation, 8 cents for maintenance, and 5 cents for administration."

Comparative charts proved that school authorities here neither overemphasize nor underemphasize any one item. An interesting financial chart in this connection was a circle divided into varicolored segments, showing how much money went for each item last year.

"Our study shows that we have been spending slightly more than the recognized median for supervisorship in the schools, and with the retrenchment next year we will fall below the median in that direction. We spend slightly more for water than other schools and rank in the middle division for janitor expense.

"Our financial burden came upon us suddenly through the valuation changes made last year. When we made our levy last year, we estimated that the schools could be operated at about the same standard and have enough money to get out of debt. The valuation was increased, but was later reduced, so that we faced a reduction of $30,000 in our working plans. This is why we are suffering the loss of school efficiency by cutting expenditures to fit the income.

"We faced an overdraft of $58,000, which had piled up through a number of years of operation. We may expect a $25,000 cut in expenditures next year through retrenchment, and hope to be able to pay off $10,000 or $12,000 of the overdraft, thus retrenching further in cutting interest costs.

"In summary we must know that, although our expenses have been less than those of cities in our class, they are still greater than our income, and that, while we are making temporary reductions, we should realize that funds for school purposes are not sufficient, and should all help in planning to make them sufficient."

The superintendent received hearty applause at the close of his talk and stopped to answer many questions asked by his interested hearers upon various items of school expense. President C. A. Ewing of the Association of Commerce, in closing the meeting, arranged by the association, declared that a remedy must be found for the problem of finances so clearly outlined.

The following communication, received from the Committee on American Speech of the National Council of Teachers of English, will doubtless be of interest to many teachers:

The Study of the Voice

The Committee on American Speech, as a part of its work, seeks to bring to the attention of readers valuable publications, from whatever source, dealing with the subjects of speech, voice, care of the throat, nose, lungs, etc.

The *Journal of Ophthalmology, Otology, and Laryngology,* of Cincinnati, is devoting its entire April issue to a "Symposium on Speech, Voice, and Hygiene

of the Vocal Tract," by representatives of professional and commercial circles. There are articles by leading physicians, Otis Skinner for the actors, public-school executives, the Chicago Telephone Company, Marshall Field & Company, etc. So far as I know it is the first broad survey of these subjects, in their mutual relations, from the point of view not of the professional teacher of speech, but of the public. It should prove of interest alike to the schools and to the general reader.

The following statement is issued as a news-letter by the Bureau of Education:

Survey of Hygienic Conditions in Iowa Schools

The State University of Iowa has recently published a valuable bulletin on *The Hygienic Conditions in the Iowa Schools*. This report is based on a study of the actual conditions prevailing in the schools. The information obtained discloses the specific weaknesses as well as the strong points in the regulations for school sanitation and school hygiene and in their enforcement and administration. This definite survey is of value to all who are interested in the improvement of hygienic conditions in villages and in the open country.

The school communities included in the survey.—Of the 181 cities and towns included in the inquiry, 55 per cent were rural villages of not more than 1,000 population, 20 per cent were towns with populations ranging from 1,001 to 3,000, and 14 per cent were very small villages or strictly country communities having consolidated schools. Thus the study measures the hygienic conditions of rural schools.

The scope of the inquiry.—The inquiry includes: (1) sanitation of school grounds and buildings; (2) hygienic conditions of schoolrooms and classrooms; (3) the special precautions taken for the protection of the children.

Specific points of the inquiry.—Some of the specific points of the investigation are: size and character of school grounds; suitable playgrounds; playground surface; width, lighting, and cleanliness of halls; water supply; distance of wells from toilets; ventilation systems; seating; lighting; washing of floors; number of children subjected to dust of sweeping; testing of eyes; and dental inspection.

Some facts brought out by the inquiry.—Twenty-one per cent of the school grounds are less than one acre in size (303 schools); 11 per cent of the school grounds are reported as wet; 60 per cent of the school halls are too narrow; $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent of the school buildings are new; 40 per cent of the schools depend on wells for drinking water; more than half the wells reported are dug; the water supply of 85 out of the 310 schools reporting had never been tested. Of 68 schools reporting the distance of the wells from the toilet, the distance was less than 75 feet in 28 schools; 75 to 100 feet in 11 schools; 100 to 200 feet or more in 32 schools. Ninety-four per cent of the schools use thermometers; 70 per cent of the schools hang the thermometers too high; 36 per cent do not air

the rooms periodically by opening windows; 50 per cent of the rooms reported are larger than the standard size; 71 per cent of the schools use single seats only; 11 per cent of the schools report adjustable seats; 80 per cent of the schools use the objectionable method of attaching window shade at the top. In 66 per cent of the schools the children's eyes are not regularly tested.

These facts concerning the hygienic conditions in the Iowa schools are typical of the kind of information needed for every school system. There should be more such surveys, to be followed by local propaganda leading to improvement of the prevailing conditions.

Junior High School in Lewiston, Idaho

The following extracts from a statement issued by the high school of Lewiston, Idaho, show in detail how the junior high-school organization is worked out in that city.

The program of courses is as follows:

JUNIOR I

Required	Periods per Week	Elective	Periods per Week
English	5	German	5
Mathematics	5	Spanish	5
History-Geography	5	Latin	5
Music		Sewing	2
Penmanship		Cooking	2
Physical Education		Shopwork and Drawing	4
Elective	10 or 5	Fine and Industrial Arts	1
	20		

JUNIOR II

English	5	German	5
Mathematics	5	Spanish	5
American History and Citizenship, ½ year	5	Latin	5
General Science, ½ yr.	5	Sewing	2
Music		Cooking	2
Physical Education		Shopwork and Drawing	4
Elective	10 or 5	Fine and Industrial Arts	1
Penmanship			
	20		

JUNIOR III

English	5	German	5
Music		Spanish	5
Physical Education		Latin	5
Elective	10 or 15	Greek and Roman History	5
	20	Biology	5
		Algebra	5
		Industrial History	5
		Commercial Geography, ½ yr.	5
		Commercial Arithmetic, ½ yr.	5
		Cookery and Sanitation	4
		Shopwork and Drawing	4
		Fine and Industrial Arts	1

This program will be more fully understood in the light of the following statements:

The Lewiston public schools during the past two years have been organized on the six-three-three plan, the elementary schools being located at convenient centers in the district, which is a large one.

The junior and senior high schools occupy wings of the same building, having access in common to auditorium, gymnasium, laboratories, and shops, but each high school has its own assembly and its own principal.

No distinction is made as to requirements for teachers. All Senior teachers have one or more Junior classes, and most Junior teachers have some Senior work.

The high-school day consists of six one-hour periods, plus twenty minutes for morning exercises.

Aside from laboratory and shop work, the first half of the hour period is devoted to recitation, then two minutes to relaxation and calisthenics, and the second half is devoted to supervised study in the various recitation rooms.

Pupils not having class work at any hour have an entire hour of supervised study in the general assembly hall.

Twenty-four credits are required for graduation. Each credit represents a year's work. Three of the twenty-four credits may be earned in subsidiary work.

Nine of the twenty-four units are in required subjects; fifteen are elective. The required subjects are: English, 5 units; mathematics, 2 units; history and geography, 1 unit; history and citizenship, $\frac{1}{2}$ unit; general science, $\frac{1}{2}$ unit.

As a further guide to the selection of subjects beginning with Junior III year, pupils will be required to complete at least three units in one of the following groups—mathematics, general science, social science, foreign languages—and at least two units in one of the remaining groups.

Students of good ability who are industrious are expected to complete the work in five years, thus saving a year.

Four units in music are offered and, when definite arrangements have been made with the music supervisor, part of this credit may be earned under private instructors who have been approved.

The following is a partial list of subsidiary work that is now being carried on for credit: band, orchestra, glee club, chorus, dramatic club, gymnasium work, wireless telegraphy, photography, parliamentary law. The work must be regularly organized, must be in charge of a high-school teacher, and the group must meet at least once each week. The credit possible in each line of work is one quarter-credit per year.

Students are also allowed credit for systematic, regular work during the summer vacation in agriculture, horticulture, boys' and girls' club work, definite work in the home, and Sunday-school work.

Pupils desiring to receive credits for subsidiary work must make definite arrangements before beginning work, so that a clear understanding may be had as to requirements.

It is entirely feasible and possible for pupils to earn one half-unit of credit a year in subsidiary work and graduate much stronger than if such work were not attempted.

All promotions in high school shall be by units of credit, and the high-school student's fitness to receive credit for work will be evaluated from the student's daily work and from such tests and drills as may be given from time to time to develop power and skill in expressing the content of knowledge gained. Moreover, the pupil's general standing in industry, attitude, initiative, and improvement will have much weight in determining this rating.

As a rule, final examinations will not be given at the close of the term, for at this time they are mechanical and lose nearly all educational value.

The following news item is from the *News* of St. Paul, Minnesota:

Junior High-School Movement in Minnesota

Construction work will start soon on a new junior-senior high-school building in North St. Paul.

This will be the first high-school building in St. Paul or Minneapolis in which there will be the junior-senior division of students. There are several others in Minnesota, the nearest to St. Paul being Farmington.

Pupils from the seventh and eighth grades will be admitted to the high school and will carry on their studies with high-school Freshmen students.

These three grades are known as the Juniors. The Sophomore, Junior, and Senior high-school students are the Seniors.

The plan was evolved by the state board of education to encourage grade-school students to carry on courses in high school. The theory is that students thus getting interested in high-school work will continue it.

The building will be of brick and concrete construction, fireproof throughout, two and a half stories high. It will contain a gymnasium, shower baths, manual-training and domestic-science departments, library, and commercial department, in addition to the regular high-school and grade rooms.

One of the biggest athletic fields of any school in Minnesota is to adjoin the building.

Part of the money for construction work is to be furnished by the state. There is no high-school building now at North St. Paul.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS

Some of the most important changes which have been made in the school program in recent years are those which have introduced courses giving special training for the trades and for commercial work. Vocational courses have been demanded by employers and by students. The effort has been made on the part of school people to organize such courses in accordance with the needs of the communities in which the schools are located. There has, however, been very little systematic study of the problem, either through an analysis of the life of the community or through a study of the methods of the courses themselves. The result is that schools have undertaken a great variety of experiments in industrial education. We have now arrived at a period when this type of training is evidently to be subjected to a careful analysis. A number of reports of surveys have just been published, giving to the educational world the results of investigations extending over the past two years. Indeed, it is a notable fact that the body of good scientific literature on industrial education has been so enlarged during the last two months that from this point on any organization of industrial courses must be based on a type of information heretofore unavailable.

The National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education is to be credited with the first steps in this field. Secondly, the Cleveland Survey is issuing several monographs on the various trades, which follow immediately upon the appearance of the two reports of the National Society.

Part of this published material will appeal to the teachers in secondary schools more than it does to teachers in elementary schools. Indeed, until recently the problem of vocational education has been thought of as a high-school problem. It has been natural that this should be so, because the legal age when children can enter industry is beyond the assumed age of children completing the elementary course. As the studies have gone forward, however, it has become increasingly evident that the whole school

course is affected by the demands for a better organization of vocational preparation. Furthermore, the age of fourteen falls, for many children, within the period of elementary schooling. The teacher and supervisor in the elementary schools are therefore profoundly interested in all aspects of the problem of vocational training.

Incidentally it should be noted that the National Society in organizing its surveys has taken a step which is of great importance not only to the problem of industrial education, but to the whole study of education. Formerly the National Society devoted itself to a campaign for legislation in the different states. This campaign was based upon the urgent practical demand for better preparation of boys and girls going into the industries. Manufacturers were very loud in their complaints that the school was not meeting the problem which to them was of major importance. It was the belief of many careful students that the campaign for the enactment of laws was premature in that there was at hand no adequate body of information to determine what kind of education was really needed in order to prepare children to go into the industries. When the National Society turned its attention from its campaign of legislation to a campaign of investigation, it recognized clearly the modern demand for a scientific basis of action. Hereafter the example of the National Society can be cited whenever anyone becomes overurgent in his efforts to carry out a practical program before he has had an opportunity to investigate carefully the problems to which his practical program applies. It can safely be said that the National Society has done more in the past two years by its investigations for the genuine promotion of industrial education than has been accomplished by its earlier campaign of legislation.

The first report of the society is one which presents the results of a survey of Richmond, Virginia. Two years ago the National Society met in that city and listened to the findings of a commission which had been at work for the greater part of a year in studying the industries of Richmond and the school opportunities offered to children who were being prepared for the trades. This Richmond report[1] contains a detailed analysis of the various trades that are

[1] *Vocational Education Survey of Richmond, Virginia.* Bulletin of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, Whole Number, 162. Miscellaneous Series, No. 7, 1915. Pp. 333.

practiced in the city. These trades are analyzed with reference to the number of men engaged in them, the kind of training which they have, and the kind of training which they ought to receive. The relation between school work and the trades is constantly brought out by statements of the wishes of employers in regard to the training of their employees and by statements with regard to the actual experiences of those who are in the trades.

It will not be possible in this brief review to canvass the findings in detail. It may be interesting to select one or two brief paragraphs which set forth the educational requirements for some of the building trades. It is stated on p. 153 that:

> The bricklayer should have at least a complete grammar-school and prevocational training, and it may be noted that as a rule he cannot advantageously enter the trade as an apprentice until his sixteenth year.

On p. 157 it is stated that the stonecutter should have qualifications as follows:

> The apprentice to this trade should receive a complete grammar-school education and some industrial training. He should receive instruction in freehand drawing, design, and blue-print reading. The boy should be specially adapted, have dexterity, patience, and be mentally alert.

The form in which the analysis of the trades is presented in this report is such as to bar the ordinary reader from the use of the document. Long technical tables and analyses give the results of an elaborate study. Undoubtedly some careful student of education will utilize this material for a more popular and illuminating discussion of the findings. There is here a great mass of material which will be very valuable to anyone organizing courses for these different trades, and the achievement which this report marks is to be described by the statement that henceforth industrial education has a substantial scientific foundation for the description of the needs of children who are preparing for the trades.

The educational section of the Richmond report depicts a situation which is probably similar to the situation in many other cities. There are no adequate funds for industrial education in the city, and there is no adequate legislation for keeping the boys and girls in school long enough to secure the advantages of trade training. The report, therefore, urges various methods by which money can

be secured for the enlargement of industrial opportunities. Either the city itself should provide more money or it should secure the aid of the state. This latter mode of providing for industrial education is legitimate in view of the fact that the great cities of a state carry on the industries for the whole community. It is hardly fair that these congested centers of population should bear the whole cost of training those who in later life are to contribute to the welfare of the whole state. A similar argument can, of course, be made for agricultural education in the rural districts, but in the main the expenditures demanded in the large cities are very heavy in proportion to their population.

The special problem of compulsory attendance requires more attention in a southern state like Virginia than would be required in one of the northern states.

Finally, it is to be noted that the recommendations with regard to trade courses made by the Richmond commission called for short-term classes in a variety of different subjects. Indeed, the report emphasizes the necessity of giving a good deal of this work in night schools, in continuation classes, and in part-time classes. The difficulty of organizing a full-day school for the trades is discussed and the recommendation for such a school is not made because of the expense of organizing such a school and because of the difficulty of getting attendance for such a school.

On the other hand, great emphasis is laid upon the importance of assimilating into the school system certain private foundations which are attempting to deal with the industrial problem.

The reader of the report gets the impression that it is of great importance in the eyes of the commission that all of this work should be co-ordinated and based upon the findings which have been set forth with regard to the different industries. In short, this elaborate and technical report calls for a thoroughgoing reorganization of the methods of instruction in vocational classes. At the same time, the recommendations of the commission make it clear that they believe in a good deal of prevocational work. The elementary courses can be formulated, especially in the upper years of the elementary school, so as to give very definite preparation for practical activities. This is true not only for boys, but also for girls.

The second survey made by the National Society, in Minneapolis,[1] Minnesota, is different in its form and different in its motives. Minneapolis has a fund of money which was left by Mr. Dunwoody and his widow to provide an institution for the industrial training of the boys and girls of Minneapolis and of the state. The Dunwoody Institute, which was created by this legacy, was an active participant in the Minneapolis survey. Furthermore, the city of Minneapolis was prepared to co-operate in such a survey because of an investigation made some years ago by the teachers of Minneapolis and some of the philanthropic organizations of that city of cases of children who were leaving school because of the inadequacy of the course of study offered in the schools.

The Minneapolis report differs also from the Virginia report in the form of its presentation. It is not an elaborate, analytical statement of the different trades, but rather a running description of these trades and the demands made of those who are to enter upon them. The book is a very readable statement of the characteristics of the different trades and will be useful in presenting the case to students as well as to teachers.

There are certain general chapters in the book which show a broader view of industrial education than that which is exhibited in the earlier survey. Thus there is a chapter on "What Vocational Education Is Needed for Non-commissioned Officers of Industry." This chapter discusses the different levels of industrial organization and points out the need of a group of trained workers who shall be subordinate to the managers, but superior to the ordinary laborers. There is a chapter on art education in industry which sets forth vigorously the demand for a broader view of industries than that which is gained through apprentice work in a shop. Every industrial worker can complete his work with a view to its artistic character as well as with a view to its mechanical perfection. There is a chapter on home gardening and elementary agriculture in which the plea is made for an education of the worker which shall have no relation whatsoever to his trade activities, but shall better qualify him to use his leisure time in productive activities which will contribute to his home life.

[1] *Report of the Minneapolis Survey for Vocational Education.* National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Bulletin No. 21, 1916. Pp. 697.

Such chapters as these, supplementing the analysis of the various trades, broaden the conception of vocational education and call attention to the difference between a strictly vocational school and a school which has in mind the improvement of workers along all lines. Indeed, in the earlier chapters of this report where an analysis is made of the school situation in Minneapolis it becomes evident that the Dunwoody Institute will become an important center in organizing not a narrow, but rather a broad, form of industrial education.

The first part of the book is devoted to certain general recommendations and to a study of the Minneapolis school system. One phase of the problem of industrial education may be selected from these recommendations for special comment. Again and again emphasis is laid upon the fact that vocational education is not primarily intended for retarded children. The recent discussions of trade courses have laid, perhaps, undue emphasis upon the advantage of taking the child who is unsuccessful in ordinary work out of the conventional academic courses and putting him into courses where he will get more handwork. There can be no doubt at all that the retarded child is very frequently benefited by removal from the conventional courses in which he is failing, but this fact should not lead to the general impression that anyone who goes into a technical course goes because he is not successful in intellectual work. Indeed, if the trades are to be raised to the highest level, they should receive the services of the brighter children in the grades, and anything that can be done to raise the intellectual level of those who are going into industrial life will be of service to the community and will exhibit clearly the importance of the school to industry.

A contrast suggested in the foregoing discussion between the educational situation in Minneapolis and the educational situation in Richmond serves to emphasize the fact that industrial education can be introduced into any school system only after a careful study of the resources of that particular community. Minneapolis is fortunate in being able to enter upon a very much more elaborate program than is Richmond, Virginia. That city is handicapped, as indicated above, by lack of funds and also because the organiza-

tion must be of a very limited type. Minneapolis, on the other hand, has great resources for this type of training and can expect to meet the needs which have been pointed out by this commission with efficient and complete courses in the Dunwoody Institute.

The second report of the National Society will, therefore, seem to many readers to present a program too elaborate for the ordinary city, but it will serve as an example of what may be done where funds are to be had; and a clear appreciation of the need of such training has been established by earlier investigations as well as by the present investigation.

The third publication to which reference may be made is the series of monographs[1] published by the Cleveland Survey. Three of these have already been issued. These three volumes introduce a series of nine reports which will be printed on the largest occupations in Cleveland and on the general problem of wage-earning. Each of these monographs is written in a style which will make its appeal to the ordinary reader as well as to the technical student of vocational education. Boys and girls who are expecting to enter the different activities described will profit greatly by a reading of these books and they will be able to do so because of the form in which the material is presented.

As a matter of evolution in the form of presentation, it is interesting to note that this last series of publications differs radically from the Richmond survey and is an improvement on the Minneapolis report.

Department Store Occupations gives a very careful picture of the kinds of jobs in department stores, their regularity, pay, and physical effects. The differences in these respects are impressed as between the downtown department stores, five-and-ten-cent stores, and neighborhood stores. Charts are given with the usual steps of promotion for boys and girls, men and women. Sales girls taken as a whole earn more than telephone and telegraph operators

[1] *Department Store Occupations.* By Iris Prouty O'Leary. Published by the Survey Committee of the Cleveland Foundation, 1916. Pp. 127.

Boys and Girls in Commercial Work. By Bertha M. Stevens. Published by the Survey Committee of the Cleveland Foundation, 1916. Pp. 181.

Railroad and Street Transportation. By Ralph D. Fleming. Published by the Survey Committee of the Cleveland Foundation, 1916. Pp. 77.

and other female employees in stores except clerks. They earn less than workers in women's clothing factories, clerks, and millinery workers. The salesmen earn more than clerks in stores, workers in steel mills, automobile factories, foundries, and machine-shops.

The saleswomen are less regularly employed than any of the other women compared except workers in millinery and lace.

A chapter is devoted to telling how to get a job in a department store. Examples of courses for salespeople in various departments are given in detail. They include silks, upholstery, corsets, shoes, and delivery. Much of this knowledge can be secured on the job, much by class work. But because of the great variety of articles sold, the instruction should be given in short unit courses, each unit dealing with one part of the trade and complete in itself. These are recommended for individual stores, groups of stores, and the public schools.

The second volume of the Cleveland report deals with boys and girls in commercial work. This volume supplements the earlier reports in that it gives a much more complete account of the clerical positions than can be found in any of the earlier discussions. Furthermore, this volume discusses at some length the courses of study offered in the commercial high school of Cleveland, and in this discussion takes up a number of the crucial general problems of commercial education.

The distinction between the commercial outlook for boys and girls is clearly drawn in the book. Thus, boys can make very little use of stenography. On the other hand, the chief demand for girls is to be found in positions where they depend upon stenography for securing and maintaining their places. The differences in opportunity of promotion for boys and girls are fully discussed. It is shown that girls who enter commercial pursuits in clerical positions are likely to remain in these positions, while the ambition of boys is to get out of a clerical position and into a managerial position.

These general statements are illuminating when one studies the course which is offered to both boys and girls in the ordinary commercial high school. Such a course, especially the one which is offered in the Cleveland commercial high school, is adapted only to the needs of girls. The boys who were asked about their train-

ing after they had attempted to make use of this training in the commercial world complained that there was no opportunity for them to use what they had acquired in the schools, whereas the girls were very well satisfied with the training which they had received.

The proofs that present training fits girls but not boys for business are many. Over one hundred employers have been interviewed and their opinions and practices are summarized. "Girls are used as they are received, for they have been shaped very well for the places they are to fill. Employers disregard the preparation of boys and have proceeded as if dealing with unformed material."

Wages always offer an index of value in business. See what they show about the training of girls and boys. All girls with commercial training are divided into two classes, those with grade-school preparation and those with high-school preparation. More than half the high-school girls received advances of $4.00 per month or more in two years' time. None of the grade-school girls did. Less than a fourth of the high-school girls, but more than half of the grade-school girls, received no raise.

Compare the boys. Those working the same time were divided into those earning $20.00 or more per week and those earning less than $20.00. Education has made no apparent difference in wage-earning. Among those with any given training there were as many earning small as large wages. Of every hundred in each class, the following numbers had received the different amounts of training:

TABLE I

	Receiving $20 and Over	Receiving Less than $20
Advanced education without business training	43	40
Grade education without business training	29	31
Advanced education and business training	17	17
Grade education and business training	11	10
Not ascertained	.....	2
Total	100	100

Wages show that girls' training for business is valuable and that boys' training does not produce.

The experience of the boys and girls at work backs up the opinions of employers and wage results. Interviews were held with one hundred graduates of a commercial school, good as such schools go.

Of sixty girls, only one expressed general dissatisfaction with her training. Of forty boys, only ten approved of it in an unqualified way. Typical comments of boys are:

"It's too good for it! Boys who never went to commercial school are doing this work the same as me."

"I could have gotten that knowledge quicker than in four years. Business men want experience more than schooling, anyway."

"Employers don't make a note of it whether you went to a commercial school or not."

"I didn't need a commercial training to hold down this $40 job."

The positions held by girls and boys give further proof that present training fits girls and misfits boys. The two largely do different kinds of work. No wonder the same schooling gives different results.

TABLE II

NUMBER OF MEN AND WOMEN IN EVERY ONE HUNDRED IN EACH KIND OF JOB

	Men	Women
Machine operators	1	24
Stenographers	9	36
General clerical	11	19
Bookkeepers	11	21
Clerks	68	1
Total	100	101*

* Due to neglect of fractions.

This table shows that boys for the most part go into positions where general abilities need to be applied to commercial work. Girls take jobs requiring specialized training or knowledge. As a result, the following recommendations are given for future commercial education:

A girl needs, chiefly, specific training in some one line of work. She has a choice among stenography, bookkeeping, and machine operating.

A boy needs, chiefly, general education, putting emphasis on writing, figuring, and spelling; general information; and the development of certain qualities and standards.

For students electing to go into commercial work, general education may be taught more effectively through the medium of commercial subjects than through academic ones.

Boys' training looks forward to both clerical work and business administration; but, as clerical work is a preparation for business and is likely to occupy the first few years of wage-earning, training should aim especially to meet the needs of clerical positions.

The third volume, on *Railroad and Street Transportation*, paints a very attractive picture of the opportunities for the boy who goes into railroading. The organization of the railroads is described in simple terms, and the opportunities for desirable positions are set forth in such a way as to stimulate the interest of any ambitious boy.

On the other hand, the student of education who reads this volume will be somewhat discouraged in his effort to correlate school work with the opportunities that are described in this book. School training fits only in a very general way for railroad opportunities. When we come to other forms of transportation, such as street-car service and trucking, the relation of education to wages is still more remote. The reader begins to realize that the fundamental tools of ordinary life which the pupil acquires in the lower grades, in the reading class, the arithmetic class, and the writing class, include nearly all of the elements of training which the ordinary worker needs. There is here and there in the book a suggestion that science would be of some help, but, when one thinks of the difficulties that have been encountered in recent years in introducing nature-study into the grades, this suggestion offers very little encouragement to those who wish to see the school and practical activities closely united.

Indeed, summarizing the impressions that the reader receives from all of the reports to which reference has been made in this review, one feels very keenly the lack of co-ordination between the present educational system and the industrial world. The industrial world is specialized and its various characteristics are worked out with a view to employing all sorts of miscellaneous people with a

training that was in no wise directed at the specific problem of the trade or business. The business world has only the crudest devices for training its employees in the special positions which they are to occupy. Competition and readjustment are the easy devices by which the business world solves its problem of selecting adequate workers and rejecting those who cannot perform its tasks.

In the meantime, the school has a general course in the elements of language and number which it can offer to anyone, but beyond this point it can do little without resorting to short courses in special subjects.

This picture of the inco-ordination of the schools with the industries gives a very clear explanation of why boys leave school early and why the commercial world is very critical of the kind of training that is given in the schools. These reports will stimulate much productive thinking and there can be very little doubt that in the long run we shall have a reorganization of school work in the interests of a better co-ordination between the school courses and the demands of industry.

CLASSROOM METHODS AND DEVICES

A Type Study in English Composition

Ability to speak and to write effectively is developed in children when they take strong interest in a subject, and when the work is given motive. For this reason it is important that we select, as the basis for composition, subjects that make a vital appeal to the interests of pupils. Children in the upper grades take marked interest in the heroic. Whether they tell about the hero of romance, of history, or of everyday life, their expression rises above the plane of ordinary composition work in that they speak and write with a freedom and a fluency not brought about by less inspiring subjects. This response on the part of the children suggested the organization of studies in composition and literature based upon the activities of some of the world's workers whose service has in it an element of heroism. A study of the work done by the bridge builder, the lighthouse keeper, the explorer, the pioneer, the patriot, the life-saver, the shipbuilder, or the civil engineer may occupy a class for six or eight weeks. We find that the child's growth in constructive and creative ability is much greater when he is occupied for a number of weeks in speaking and writing on the various phases of a great theme, than it is when the same length of time is spent on unrelated topics. Sixth- and seventh-grade pupils have worked untiringly for eight weeks in developing the study explained here.

Of all these topics there is, perhaps, none that brings from the class a greater variety of expression than Life-Saving; nor is there a more profitable exercise in the whole unit of work on this subject than the first step in its development. This is a synthesis of the child's experience related to the theme—a bringing to expression all that he has which may be made the basis of new impressions. The children are asked the question, What does the expression "life-saving" bring to your mind? Responses come freely. They relate snatches of experiences of their own or their friends; they tell

stories they have heard or read; and they describe pictures seen. The teacher guides the class in selecting from among this fragmentary material the best stories not found in print. It will be seen that the treatment of firsthand material has many advantages over the retelling of a tale written by another. Important factors in the former exercise are the zest with which the child gives his individual message to the class, and the genuine interest shown by his audience. It is not uncommon to hear several members of the class ask a pupil who has been especially fortunate in both subject and treatment for copies of his story.

In preparation for the oral work, the child makes a simple outline and words his subject carefully. In addition to this, he practices telling the story aloud during the study period at home. His aim is to improve sentence structure, grammatical usage, and choice of words, in order to make his story clear and interesting. He regards the final telling to the class as an opportunity to improve his work, and he is expected to profit by their criticism when he writes the story later.

The type and variety of the experiences told are revealed by these titles taken from narratives written by sixth- and seventh-grade children: Our Dog: a Life-Saver; He Gave His Life for His Friends; The Hero of a Fire; My Uncle's Brave Deed; Saved by a Crew from Jackson Park Station; My Grandfather's Rescue on the Grand Banks; A Brave Woman; A Hero of the "Titanic."

This true story written by a seventh-grade boy is, in some respects, above the average given by his group.

LIFE-SAVING IN MID-ATLANTIC

While coming from Europe two years ago, having been out at sea for four days, we felt a queer vibration. At first I thought that our ship must be disabled. I recalled at once an experience my father had when his ship was ten days late in reaching port, because the shaft broke. But this was not the reason we stopped. Everyone ran to the deck and saw a few hundred yards in front of us a small sail boat about fifty feet long. It showed a signal flag upside down, which meant, "We are starving." So in the middle of the ocean we stopped.

Then came a thrilling sight. All sorts of food—beeves, great sacks of potatoes, barrels of water, loaves of bread, and many vegetables were put into a lifeboat and lowered. It was a wild and stormy ocean, and many times

the brave sailors were lost to our view. But they made the dangerous journey to the distressed vessel in safety. They found twenty-eight on the little sail boat, among them women and children. They had been on the ocean more than three months, and had been exposed to all sorts of weather. There was much sickness among them. Three had died of scurvy from eating too much salty food.

The sailors of our life ship asked the women and children of the little vessel to come to our boat where more comfort could be given them. But they refused.

Several of us boys collected a sum of money, in all one hundred and twenty-eight dollars, for the brave sailors who risked their lives to carry aid to those in the sailing vessel.

The boat was bound for Portland, Maine, but they did not reach there until three weeks after we were safe at home.

While these stories are being prepared, the class becomes interested in searching magazines, newspapers, and books for reference material to be used in a further development of the study. The library is used freely, and descriptions, stories, explanations, diagrams, and maps are collected. Then there is a class exercise in which all members write letters to the United States Coast Guard at Washington, D.C., asking for information about its service on our coasts. When the letters have been criticised and exhibited, the class selects the best one, and sends it to Washington. The *Annual Report of the Coast Guards*, which is sent on request, contains stories, pictures, and other helpful material.

Early in the study each child begins to make a list of the new words he needs in this unit. He finds such words as "guard," "captain," "preserver," "devices," "derelict," "apparatus," "buoy," and "buoyancy." These lists grow as the work advances, and brief drills are given from time to time in pronunciation, spelling, definition, and giving synonyms.

In order to give the children a clearer notion of the entire plan of the study, and to enlist their co-operation in carrying it forward, one recitation period is given to a discussion of the material to be used. The details of the plan are blocked out by teacher and children together, the latter being encouraged to make suggestions about the order of procedure and the details which they want to include in books which they make of all the material collected during the study. The index of a book, when completed, contains

many of the topics given below. Each child writes on but one or two of the life-saving devices, selecting those in which he is especially interested.

PLAN OF STUDY

1. An experience in life-saving
2. A story suggested by a picture
3. History of life-saving in the United States
4. Distribution of life-saving stations in America
5. Kinds of service rendered by the life-saving crews
6. The coast guards
7. Our visit to Jackson Park Station
8. Equipment of a life-saving station
9. The captain—an appreciation
10. The crew
11. Life-saving devices:
    - The breeches buoy
    - The Lyle gun
    - Life-rafts
    - The Coston light
    - Life-belts
    - The life-car
    - The self-righting boat
    - The pulmotor
12. The revenue-cutter service
13. An original story
14. Original verses
15. Reproduction of a story

The children visit the Life-Saving Station when they have sufficient information to enable them to make intelligent observations. After the excursion each child selects one of the life-saving devices and explains its use, making diagrams to illustrate all important points.

This explanation was written by a girl in the seventh grade. It ranks as average work.

HOW THE BREECHES BUOY IS USED

The breeches buoy is a circular life-preserver of cork, about seven and one-half feet in circumference, to which short canvas breeches are attached. It holds one person. It is suspended by lanyards from a hawser, and is thrown to and from the wreck by lines.

The line is shot out to the wreck by the Lyle gun, and is aimed over the mast. It is then pulled by the people on board the ship until they get hold

of the heavier rope called the hawser. They then fasten the hawser to the mast of the wrecked vessel. A man puts his legs into the breeches buoy which is sent out on this hawser, he sits on the canvas saddle, and is carried safely to shore or to the rescuing vessel. When the life-savers have rescued all the passengers from the wrecked ship, they shoot another line out with a knife attached to it to cut the line on the mast. They then reel in both the lines and take off the breeches buoy.

This apparatus was used seventeen times this year in saving fifty-two persons. On one occasion it was operated at night, and five persons were saved.

The pictures used in this study are "Life-Saving at Dieppe," Beyle; "Grace Darling and Her Father," Brooks; "Launching the Life-Boat," Gaibble; "The Departure," Haquette; and "In the Gulf Stream," Winslow Homer. While there are no formal lessons in composition based on the study of these pictures, the children gain from class discussions a deeper realization of the self-giving of those who go out to rescue the distressed. Moreover, from the study of these pictures come suggestions of details of sky and sea, or sound, or movement with which the pupil later enriches his original story. The two pictures named first may be had for a penny each from the Perry Picture Company, Malden, Mass. These are usually included among the leaves of the book. Inexpensive copies of the others may be ordered at any art store.

Under the direction of the teacher of art, the children make book-covers which they decorate with appropriate units, and they illustrate some of their stories in water-color.

From the beginning, the teacher encourages the pupil to look for suggestions as to the plot and the setting of his original story which is to be the last of this series of compositions. His narrative may be entirely original, or it may be an embellished treatment of a personal experience. Before he begins to write, he decides about the climax of his story. Whether he sets forth a tale as told by the captain, by one of the crew, or by one rescued from a sinking ship, his story is usually characterized by strong action and economy of incident. He tries to tell it simply and convincingly. It is not unusual that these stories contain bits of vivid description. The passage given here is taken from a story written by a boy in the seventh grade.

It was a dark, stormy night. As Jake Brown, beach patrol, tramped up and down his dreary beat of two miles, the wind swished and screeched to the lonely man, while now and then a huge breaker tumbled up to his rubbered feet.

Before the close of the study the attention of the class is directed to related literature. The teacher reads "The shipwreck," from David Copperfield, and that prime favorite, Frank Hopkinson Smith's story of Captain Thomas Scott who saved the lives of all on board a Hoboken ferry-boat. "The Coast Guard," a poem by Emily Huntington Miller, and Longfellow's "The Wreck of the Hesperus" are read in class.

Heroes of Everyday Life, by Fanny E. Coe, Ginn & Co.; *The Boy with the U.S. Life-Savers*, written by Francis Rolt-Wheeler, Lathrop, Lee & Shepard Co., Boston, and James Otis' *The Life-Savers*, E. P. Dutton & Co., New York, are books particularly well adapted to the children's use.

There is strong motivation throughout this study. While the child is following his individual interests in gathering material for his book, his prime motive is to serve the group by contributing for its instruction the best incidents, explanations, and pictures he can find. His desire to help, and the sympathetic interest he takes in heroic deeds of life-savers, lead to definite improvement in outlining and organizing material, in oral reading, in spelling and letter-writing, and in oral and written composition.

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COURSE OF STUDY IN DRAWING IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO. II

By Members of the Department of Art Education in the College of Education and the Elementary School

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METHODS AND SUBJECT-MATTER[1]

The work in this course is planned to meet the growing demands for self-expression in drawing. The methods of presentation are determined by the three following facts:

1. Interest in telling a story is at the basis of good drawing. As the other subjects of the grade are of immediate interest to the children, these subjects are chosen as the chief source of material for drawing.

2. Ability to draw is specific rather than general. This necessitates the building up of a graphic vocabulary of well-known forms.

3. One draws only in part from his immediate visual impressions. Memories and knowledge along other lines also contribute. This fact determines the place of object-drawing and its relation to memory drawing and to the use of reference material.

A description of the drawing in each grade as it is related to the subject-matter of the curriculum is here given.

KINDERGARTEN

Methods and Subject-Matter

1. *Drawing and paper-cutting.*—Drawing with crayola and chalk, and paper-cutting are used by the children to express their own ideas and experiences as well as ideas suggested by the social occupations, nature-study, and literature of the program.

[1] A discussion of methods and subject-matter in fuller detail, illustrated by children's drawings, will be found in *How Children Learn to Draw*, by Sargent and Miller (now in press) (Boston: Ginn & Co.).

Throughout the year the children are given repeated opportunity to express pictorially, either on paper or on the blackboard, familiar phases of their environment. These include characteristic playground activities of the fall, winter, and spring, such as children swinging, sliding, playing with sleds, jumping rope, etc. Suggestions for this type of drawing frequently come from the phases of life in the home or neighborhood around which the constructive activities center. These include a dry-goods store window, street cars, trains, boats, and automobiles. Vivid experiences, such as a visit to the fire station or blacksmith shop, furnish excellent suggestions for pictorial expression.

Interest in such natural objects as the gold fish, the first pussy-willow, a moth just hatched, or the first robin in the spring, is sufficiently keen to make them valuable as subjects for drawing.

Selected Mother Goose rhymes and "The Night before Christmas" are suggested for illustrative drawing.

While freedom of expression is of paramount consideration, the children are made conscious of good or poor results and are consistently held to a higher standard of attainment. After a lesson, the drawings are often talked over by the group and improvements are suggested by the children and the teacher. At this time the children are given the opportunity of supplementing their drawings by oral explanations. The children mount all of the drawings which are to be used for room decorations or to be taken home. This serves the double purpose of enhancing the effect of the child's work and giving him training in effective spacing.

Closely related to the drawing is the making of room decorations which reflect various aspects of the seasons. Autumn leaves, evergreen trees and holly wreaths, snow men, and figures of children coasting, are some of the outlined forms which are colored, cut, and mounted by the children. Both before and after an exercise of this kind, the children are given an opportunity to draw these same objects.

The free cutting of objects without the aid of an outline is employed when it comes to the expression of an idea which has been concretely worked out, either through building, modeling, paper construction, or drawing.

At the beginning of the year, many opportunities are given the children to satisfy their desire to use scissors and to give them the control of this tool, which is needed for other forms of cutting. Paper napkins, doilies, and rugs used in connection with block building are fringed by means of snipping. This is followed by line cutting and the use of scissors in connection with paper construction.

2. *Simple spacing and rhythmic arrangement.*—Spacing and rhythmic arrangement of concrete units are worked out through the stringing of beads, and such nature materials as berries, seeds, snakegrass, and leaves. This may involve color, form, and number, as well as orderly repetition of units. After the children have gained some control of the technique of stringing, and have experienced the pleasure that comes with regularity of arrangement, they are encouraged to arrange their designs on the table before beginning to string the material. This helps them to hold the pattern in mind; otherwise the interest in the activity of stringing the material tends to make them forget the pattern and they fail to repeat the units correctly. Designs made in this way are often repeated in crayon as a decoration for a book cover, a basket, or a paper plate.

A linoleum pattern is designed in connection with furnishing the playhouse. This involves the alternation of spots to make a simple pattern.

Preparatory to the weaving of a small rug, 9×7 inches, out of jute, also for the playhouse, the children arrange their designs on the strawboard looms, with pieces of jute cut the right length. The designs take the form of stripes of a harmonious color across each end. Several combinations of color and of stripes of different widths are tried. Improvements are suggested by the teacher and the children until a satisfactory design has been made. This pattern is then copied in construction paper and used as a guide in weaving the jute rug.

The making of paper-doll dresses furnishes a very childlike motive for design in placing of cuffs, collars, and bands of trimming. At first the children are given outlined manila-paper dresses, coats, and hats to cut out and trim with crayon. They

are free to experiment with different ways of trimming, often getting suggestions from their own and other children's clothes. These results are talked over with the children and used as suggestions for making other dresses, coats, etc., out of colored construction paper where the combinations of suitable colors and more elaborate possibilities in trimming enter into the problem.

The holidays and festivals furnish another opportunity for the use of design and arrangement, in the making of appropriate decorations and favors; for example, at Hallowe'en the children cut and color brownies and jack-o'-lanterns for room decorations. They are free to put in the features and to enjoy this legitimate opportunity for representing the grotesque. The making of paper masks and lanterns admits of the same possibilities.

The making of valentines furnishes another excellent motive for further work in design. The children are allowed to experiment with suggestive materials in the making of several valentines. Suggestions are taken from these and improved upon by the teacher, so that the final valentine represents a satisfactory design.

3. *Modeling.*—Clay and plasticene are materials used freely in the kindergarten, and the children are given full opportunity to discover their possibilities as a means of expression. The first instinctive patting and rolling commonly results in little cakes and pies and other bakery products. These suggest kitchen utensils, dishes, etc. The housekeeping plays furnish motives for frequent repetition of the same forms. Some of the dishes are made into satisfactory playthings by a coating of white enamel.

The equipping of a large grocery store, which is one of the fall projects, supplies a motive for the shaping of a variety of fruits and vegetables from the spherical form. The children have the actual products before them, and made several of each. These clay fruits and vegetables are painted with water color to give them a more realistic appearance.

In connection with the activities centering about the farm, the children model cows, horses, pigs, sheep, and chickens, which are needed to complete their play projects.

Some of the clay-modeling is made permanent, either by firing, or painting and shellacking. It seems worth while to put a few

articles in permanent form; for example, a bowl and flower-holder, paperweight, pintray, candlestick, and flowerpot. These articles are frequently made at Christmas time by the children and used as gifts.

Standards of Attainment

I. An established habit of using drawing with facility, and an attitude of considering drawing, cutting, and modeling as a natural means of expression.

II. An awakened appreciation of the simpler forms of good spacing and rhythmic arrangement.

1. Arrangement of concrete units involving repetition.
2. Spacing of simple margins.

III. Familiarity with the six chief color sensations.

GRADE I

Methods and Subject-Matter

I. Drawing incidents and stories from imagination and memory.

The largest part of the illustrative work in this grade comes in connection with the history. For the first semester there is a study of farm life. The children make a Farm Book, in which they keep all their drawings and cuttings bearing on this phase of the work. Illustrations of different farm activities are made, as the Man Milking the Cows, the Sheepfold, the Pigs, the Farmer Harvesting Grain, the Farmer Plowing, the Chicken-yard. Then drawings are made of the grocery store where the farm products are sold. In the second semester Indian life is the topic. Pictures representing different phases of this are needed, such as the Squaw Carrying the Papoose, the Indian Brave Hunting, or the Indian in His Canoe.

At times all the children are given the same topic to illustrate. At other times each child chooses the part of the story he wishes to tell. Suggestions of method and technique are largely incidental, and gained mainly from seeing the instructor draw. The simple principles of good spacing and composition are brought out through class criticism and a comparison of their work with good pictures.

II. There is specific study of some of the more important characteristics of appearance of a few selected objects. These are learned at first quite in detail by seeing drawings made or by tracing pictures before attempting to get data from the actual object. The need for a better drawing of these shapes comes through the class criticism of the first drawings. When the form is well learned the final composition for the illustration is made.

The literature is a subject which furnishes much material for drawing. Seven or eight of the Christina Rossetti poems are illustrated. Where the human figure is needed, action lines are first sketched and then filled out. The illustrations are mounted and bound with the poems into book form.

In connection with the natural science much drawing of flowers, bulbs, birds, vegetables, etc., is necessary.

III. The simple principles of good spacing and rhythmic arrangement enter into nearly all of the work in drawing. Work is either mounted or used as a page for a book.

The making of covers for the History Book and Book on Poems involves the simple principles of spacing in design. The forms learned which are suggestive of the content of the book may be used as decorative units. Printing is needed for titles of books, names, grocery-store signs, initials, etc. Any of the letters are used when needed, but only the simplest straight-lined ones are definitely taught.

The children count aloud as they make rhythmic borders. Units are first made by a grouping of straight lines, and later by reducing some plant or flower to a few lines. These borders are used on work envelopes made in the construction period, book covers, and borders for wallpaper in the playhouse which is built.

IV. Color is used freely in all illustrative and design work. Color charts of the six chief color sensations are made. The children bring samples of paper, cloth, ribbon, etc., to match the color put up by the teacher. In connection with the designing of book covers and calendars there is the applying of one spot of bright color on black, white, or gray.

Standards of Attainment

I. An established habit of using drawing as a means of narrative expression, in which the drawings are allowed to remain largely pictographic in character, and serve to suggest ideas and to sustain the narrative rather than to represent correctly any facts of appearance that do not contribute directly to the movement of the story.

II. A representation of salient characteristics of selected objects, sufficiently well drawn to make the drawing readily recognizable. These objects should be learned so that they can be drawn from memory:

1. Human figure—ability to indicate the human figure in any position, using the action lines. These may be filled out when desired.
2. Animals and birds—ability to draw readily from memory five or six animal forms, and four or five bird forms with a fair degree of correctness.
3. Plants—representation of plants growing in the room; drawing of the bulb in different stages of its growth; drawing of several spring and fall flowers, showing general effect with crayons; drawing of characteristic shapes of three or four trees.
4. Constructed forms—drawings and cuttings of certain shapes of objects used in the illustration of subject-matter, which will serve in a later grade as a basis for other forms—e.g., canoe shape, wigwam, Indian weapons, house, barn, etc.
5. Landscape—representation of the simple landscape necessary for the environment of the Indian—trees, sky, land, water.

III. An appreciation of simple rhythmic arrangement:

1. An appreciation of one or two spots well placed within a larger space.
2. Ability to mount work so that the margins are pleasing.
3. A feeling for rhythm in a border—the making of rhythmic borders by repeating the unit to count.
4. Simple arrangement of elements in a composition in order to tell the story adequately (ways of emphasizing the center of interest).
5. Ability to print and cut the simplest straight-lined letters.

IV. Free use of color in all work.

1. Recognition of the six chief color sensations.
2. Discrimination of single notes of color.
3. Application of a single spot of bright color on white, black, or gray.

GRADE II

Methods and Subject-Matter

I. Continued drawing, from imagination and memory, of incidents and stories, with more study of results to see whether the story is told satisfactorily.

In this grade, as in the first, the drawing grows largely out of the history and geography, the natural science, and the literature. The history and geography begin with the problems of food-getting among primitive peoples: *The Story of Ab* (Waterloo) is used with the children. This calls for illustrations of the various activities in the cave man's life—hunting, the cave as a home, cooking, fighting the wild animals, making tools and weapons, etc.

In the second semester Arab life is the topic. Each child makes a book on shepherd life in the desert. The illustrations include pictures of the oasis, the caravan, the desert homes, etc.

The compositions made to illustrate this work must tell the story, and also must be true from the geographical standpoint.

For the literature pictures are made of several of the Robert L. Stevenson poems, among others the "Marching Song," "Dark Brown Is the River," "The Land of Counterpane." Stories which have been dramatized by the children are sometimes illustrated, or the scenes may be worked out by pictures as one method of making the play.

In the natural science there is drawing of bulbs, flowers, trees, plants. These representations conform more to the actual appearance from the standpoints of shape and proportions. There is a steady gain in the use of colored crayons as a medium in representation.

II. More detailed study of the same or similar forms as were studied in Grade I. Two or three of these, so far as general shape and prominent characteristics are concerned, are

1. committed to memory line by line, if necessary, until they can be drawn fluently;
2. used repeatedly as a pictorial vocabulary. A single form (e.g., animal or other) well learned in detail becomes a definite center of reference for other forms of the same general type, and similarities and differences are perceived with greater clearness than is possible by mere industry in drawing things, however carefully, without the aid of a well-established preperceiving image.

In connection with the study of the cave man, a few shapes are selected for definite learning, as the hyena, the lion, the weapons, the cave, the stone kettle. The children make sketches of the weapons in the museum and later learn to cut the shapes freehand. The animal forms may be learned by tracing hectographed copies, and by then making composite drawings on the board, toward which each child contributes something.

At the beginning of the work with Arab life the children make a list of the objects they will need to learn to draw before they can readily make illustrations for the written papers. The list usually includes camel, Arab tent, palm tree, sheep, and horse. Special drill is given on these shapes, and where it is possible they are compared with or built upon the shapes learned previously. For example, the shape of the Arab tent is compared with that of the Indian wigwam; the horse and sheep are built upon the simple forms learned in Grade I, and are now drawn with a little more correctness.

Drawings of the human figure are needed in some of the history and geography illustrations and for most of the work in literature. As in Grade I, the action is obtained by first drawing the stick figure. In order to insure progress in representing the figure with more accuracy in shape and proportions, one of several methods may be used. One way of dealing with this is as follows: after the illustration has been made once, the children indicate the figures as best they can; then they may select from pictures figures in the same positions as the ones they drew. These may be colored and cut out, then drawn from memory. The memory sketches are compared with the pictures and corrections made. After these

steps have been taken, the children show vast improvement in the drawing of their final illustrations.

The objects selected for detailed study in connection with the natural science are one or two plants growing in the room, bulbs, tools from the garden, butterflies, moths, dragonflies, and certain other insects. The drawing of the garden tools furnished a basis for simple work with proportions in connection with the object-drawing. The tools may be held against the blackboard and traced around with chalk by the children. Then each child may have the practice of drawing these shapes on the board, with the same length and width of the traced form. After this, pencil drawings and cuttings are made, and later the tools may be modeled in clay.

III. Much more definite work along the line of rhythmic arrangement and good space relations comes in Grade II. All drawings are mounted as in the first grade; but through practice and class criticism the results become more pleasing. Covers for the books in connection with the history or literature are made. The decorative units are sometimes based on some one of the well-known forms, and then again the children invent them by the constructive method of grouping lines, dots, circles, etc. Printing is used for book-cover titles, names, calendar cards. Rhythmic borders are made to count as in the first grade, with units in greater variety and more complicated in form. Frequently the objects in the room, for example, flowerpots, bottles, etc., serve as motifs.

Color is used freely in all work. The design is done entirely with the hard crayons, while the soft crayons are used for illustrations and nature work. In order to teach the light and dark of one color, or different hues of any one color, a chart is put up on which the teacher pastes the first sample. The children are encouraged to bring samples of anything which matches that color. These are pasted on also as they are brought.

Standards of Attainment

I. Narrative drawing, in the range and adequacy of which improvement is evident from the contribution made by the systematic study of selected forms.

II. A definite list of animal and bird forms, and also a few objects related to the themes selected for study, which all the children can draw at the board or on paper freely from memory:

1. Human figure—action lines, with ability to show bend of elbows and knees. These action lines are filled out with more thought of proportions.
2. Animal and bird forms—drawing of the same animals and birds used in previous year, but with more nearly the correct shape. Several new animal and bird forms are learned.
3. Plants—ability to represent quickly any of the common spring and fall flowers. More definite drawing of the trees learned previously and an addition of several new tree shapes. Drawing of many kinds of bulbs before planting, then drawing of the plant after it blooms.
4. Constructed forms—the forms already learned are drawn with more detail, and other forms added to these, as the Beduin tent, stone kettle, weapons of the cave man, etc.
5. Landscape—use of the same landscape, with other types added, as that found in the desert.

III. An increased appreciation of good spacing and rhythmic arrangement:

1. Ability to print all of the letters of the alphabet, using straight-lined letters.
2. The invention of decorative units, and the use of the shapes of the common objects around the room as units in borders. Border lines used.
3. Illustrations made for other subjects with more thought as to placing of elements. The center of interest is kept in mind.
4. Work mounted with great care in securing pleasing relations of margins and spaces.

IV. Free use of color in all illustration and design:

1. Recognition of different hues of one color: "It is red, but not the red of the sample." Ability to match color exactly, by samples.
2. Color in design—use of light and dark of one color.

GRADE III

Methods and Subject-Matter

I. Continued illustration of themes and incidents which require the use of forms made familiar by previous study and also the introduction of new forms and effects.

The topic which calls for the most illustrative work is the study of the vikings and Norway, as history and geography. Pictures are made which show the type of country—the jagged mountains, the coast line with fiords, islands, lighthouses, the kind of vegetation, and the pine forests. These include entirely new kinds of geographical forms from those learned in connection with the desert life in Grade II. They must represent the truth from the geographical point of view, and yet they must be arranged in a composition, that the picture may be good from the aesthetic standpoint. In this grade the children plan their compositions with a center of interest in mind, and with some thought of dominant and subordinate masses. Some pictures made in this study are: vikings on their ships engaged in battle, vikings fighting on land, pictures which illustrate some of the old viking tales.

In the study of Switzerland, Holland, and Japan, which are used as type countries in the geography, illustrations are made for each country, as with Norway. An experiment was tried during the study of Japan. The children were shown a great many Japanese prints and were told a little about them. Their appreciation was so keen that when they illustrated Japanese folk-stories they wanted to represent them so that they would look like the prints. The results showed these characteristics to a remarkable degree. It was found that appreciation of Japanese prints is possible at this age, and that when it does come Japanese art will ever after be full of meaning and beauty to the child.

II. Systematic study for more intimate knowledge of forms already studied and of new forms, and of their appearance in different positions. Forms such as birds, animals, boats, trains, homes, etc., are drawn not only in detail and with better structure of forms, but also in different positions. The forms learned previously should be utilized as interpretive images:

1. to carry to greater elaboration the study of familiar forms.
2. as a basis for more individual work in the study of new related forms.

Some of the forms selected to be learned in connection with history and geography are the viking ship, the dragon head (as prow of ship), Norse weapons, Norse feast hall, Japanese house, Swiss house, windmill. The viking ship at the Field Museum is sketched, in order to get the shape and proportions. From pictures and small models the shapes of viking ships in different positions are learned. The children find that they need to know how to draw dragon heads as prows for the boats. The essential construction lines and proportions of a dragon head are dictated to them; these may then be used as a basis for building many different kinds of dragon heads with various degrees of fierceness. The children gather many pictures of Norse weapons and learn the shapes and proportions by drawing them on the board. Freehand cuttings are then made and these are mounted on a page for the Viking Book. The weapons are drawn freehand in making illustrations of the vikings in combat. In order to get the action of the fighting men, pictures of whole battles are made on the board, the action lines being used for the figures. In these board drawings each member of the class has a part.

From pictures and models the typical shapes of Japanese houses are learned. These shapes are compared with the shapes of homes learned previously, such as the wigwams, Arab tent, Norse feast hall. The Swiss house is a little more complicated, but is easily built upon the forms already learned.

In connection with the natural science several new insect and animal shapes are added to the graphic vocabulary, such as the frog, mosquito, rabbit, etc. A few plants are drawn so that the growth is shown, and parts of plants are drawn so that the detail of growth is represented. The beginning of any exact drawing of plants comes in this grade. Many fall and spring flowers are represented.

In connection with the geometric forms learned, the terms vertical, horizontal, and diagonal are used for the first time. The children practice making these lines at the board, standing at

arm's length from it. In the drawing of houses, letter-boxes, trains, etc., the children work consciously toward getting the vertical, horizontal, and diagonal lines as nearly correct as possible. Some discussion of proportion comes here, and an effort is made to secure the right relation between the height and the width of objects. All objects are drawn in two dimensions only.

The vocabulary in connection with the geography becomes greatly enlarged. Two types of mountains are learned, the rocky and the volcanic. The shape of the pine tree of the northern lands is added to the shapes of the deciduous and palm trees already learned. Rivers with wide basins, and also with deep narrow basins, are drawn, and coast lines of rough, rocky shores are represented. The shape of the lighthouse is learned in this connection.

III. The children are taught how to gather from pictures, and other information supplied by the instructor, material for elaborating their drawings and illustrations. These data are kept in little sketchbooks and referred to when needed.

IV. As in the previous grades, the design underlies all the work. Book covers which are made for the written papers and illustrations are more complicated than heretofore. Line borders are used, so that the problem becomes one of spacing borders, name, and perhaps a decorative unit. Surface patterns are worked out from the rhythmic borders, and are used to decorate work envelopes and book covers. Each child makes a sketchbook for which he designs the cover, by using either surface patterns or line borders. This little book is used for gathering quick sketches of shapes needed in some of the illustrative work. The children take the sketchbooks to the museum or home or to the library, in order to make a sketch of the form to be learned.

Printing is used for many purposes. The upper-case, single-line letter is made. There is practice in filling different-sized spaces with one word, in connection with making the titles for books. Names are always printed, also notices and signs. The children test their printing by asking themselves these questions:

Are the letters straight?

Do they fill the space?

Are they dark enough?

Can the word be easily read?

Some of the well-known animal forms are drawn on squared paper and used in a border for a sofa cushion. These are cross-stitched in the household art periods.

Squared paper is used for the first time in this grade.

V. The free use of color is encouraged. Each child should have charts of colored samples which exactly match the color given by the instructor.

Runs of hues should be made with the soft crayons and by collections of samples of colored materials.

A certain amount of technique in the use of crayons is gained in this grade.

The characteristics of the landscape or the covering of the animal or the texture of the flowers must be interpreted by the kind of stroke used.

Standards of Attainment

I. Narrative drawing increasingly expressive in:

1. The characteristics of forms used.
2. The effects of distance, different positions, actions, elaborations of detail, etc.

II. Forms definitely learned as an addition to the graphic vocabulary:

1. List of bird and animal forms, which can be drawn from memory so as to show not only the general characteristics of form but particular details such as the shape of bill, head, legs, the characteristic markings, etc., which distinguish one species from another.
2. Ability to sketch the human figure from imagination so as to express any attitude or action.
3. Ability to draw several plants with much more correctness as to proportions and growth, and to draw a leaf or part of a plant that shows the detail of growth.
4. Ability to represent objects involving right angles and straight lines, with the proper relations of vertical, horizontal, and parallel, and to sketch these relations in long

lines drawn at arm's length on the board, and also to make these lines on paper.

5. Ability to represent simply a few constructed objects, such as houses, boats, trains, weapons, etc.
6. Ability to represent the typical landscape of countries as Switzerland, Norway, Japan, Holland. This involves mountain and tree forms.

III. Children should be able to gather, from pictures and descriptions, material to use in their pictorial expression of given themes.

IV. Increased appreciation of rhythmic arrangement and pleasing space relations, with ability to secure results that are good in the application of these principles:

1. Ability to print all the letters of the alphabet readily, using the single-lined letters, to make letters of various sizes, and to fill any given space with a word.
2. Ability to make units for design as in previous grades, but with more of a decorative quality. More individuality of style is acquired through repeating the unit and consciously striving to obtain more of a swing in the lines. Ability to invent units from abstract lines, or by using the numerals or the letters of the alphabet.
3. Ability to make borders by suggesting the contact of units or by actual contact, and to make surface patterns by repetition of borders or by running patterns.
4. Ability to conventionalize a well-known form on cross-sectioned paper for use in a border.

V. Use of color in all work:

1. Ability to make the run evenly from one color to the other, as from yellow to green, through the use of crayons, or to make a graded series of hues with samples.
2. Ability to match the more obscure color notes with samples.
3. Enough mastery of the technique involved in the use of crayons (i.e., the kind of stroke) to secure the desired effects in representing different types of landscape.
4. Use of color in connection with design. Ability to make pleasing combinations of mixed colors, blue greens, yellow greens, etc., with black and white, or a solid color.

HISTORY IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

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It seems that the junior high school has come to stay. Its rapid growth during the past few years is but one of a number of evidences of dissatisfaction with the present organization of the elementary and high-school grades. Since the movement is yet in its infancy, one cannot tell just what the end will be. As now organized the so-called junior high school, in some places at least, is nothing more than an administrative device which has been forced upon school authorities as a means of relieving congestion somewhere in their school systems. In such instances few or no changes have been made in the course of study proper. However, there are a few places in which such a school has been organized not only as an administrative device but also as an institution to meet the educational needs and capacities of a certain group of adolescent boys and girls. These schools have actually reorganized their courses of study. They have not only added new subjects, but have overhauled the old ones, casting out the rubbish and adding more vitalizing materials.

Actual reforms, both in the selection of material and methods of teaching some of the traditional subjects, are quite essential in this new type of school, if it is to deserve its appellation. In order to find out what has been done with one of these traditional subjects in this new type of school, a letter of inquiry was addressed to sixty-eight superintendents of cities listed as having junior high schools. This list was made up for the school year 1913–14, and was included in the *Report of the Commissioner of Education* for the year ending June 30, 1914. There are, of course, many junior high schools that have come into existence since the report was made. In fact, to keep up to date the statistics on an institution growing as rapidly as this one would require investigations much oftener than they are usually made.

The letter of inquiry was concerned with history only. Since replies were received from all but eight of those cities to which they were sent, one is able to speak with some degree of certainty of the organization of history teaching in a small number of junior high schools. It should be said, however, that certain cities credited by the Commissioner's *Report* with having a junior high school in 1914 have no such institution even in 1916. Superintendents of these cities were unable to explain why they should be credited with having such a school. In other cities the organization is so new and tentative that the authorities are unwilling to give out information regarding it. At this time, in fact, it should be said that the whole movement is so new in this country that the number of superintendents who are satisfied with the organization as it now exists is quite small.

On the whole, the returns from cities with one or more junior high-school organizations in actual operation show that little progress has been made in the reorganization of the course of study in history and civics. The history formerly taught in Grades VII, VIII, and IX is the history usually found in this newly organized institution. It is a well-known fact that the typical history course in the two upper elementary grades as they are now organized consists of the history of the United States—the seventh grade covering the period to about 1789, and the eighth grade the period from that date to the present, with but little emphasis on the period since 1865. Since the epoch-making report of the Committee of Seven was published, ancient history has been quite extensively taught in the first year of high school. The following tabular view of history teaching as it is now organized in a number of junior high schools in this country will show to what extent the traditional organization prevails.

Certain observations in the tabulation shown on p. 494 seem worth commenting on. In the first place, one must recognize the fact that such an exhibition of the history work done in the junior high schools included in the table by no means portrays the actual materials presented or the methods of teaching them. One must see the courses outlined in some detail before one has an adequate basis for judging their real merits or demerits. However, such a

presentation does reveal general tendencies. A few hopeful cases are shown to exist in the present desert of chronological, textbook, traditional, and formalized history. For example, the history courses for the junior high schools in Columbus, Ohio, show signs of an effort at actual reorganization. Lincoln, Nebraska, Berkeley, California, and Goldfield, Iowa, have programs which also depart from the traditional history and civics courses found in most of the other cities. Crookston, Minnesota, is an example of a city attempting to adjust the history work to the vocational needs of the pupils. Decatur, Illinois, adjusts the work to the capacities of the pupils by offering a course for the more capable, the less capable, and the average. This fact could not be indicated in the table.

The writer was not at all surprised to find the prevalence of courses in United States history in grades VII and VIII and of courses in ancient history in grade IX. The chief reason for the situation is a historical one. It is simply that we got started in that direction and have not yet, in the new order of things brought upon us by the advent of this new type of school, stopped long enough to ask why. While it is true that the Committee of Eight recommended United States history in the two upper grades of the elementary school, one must keep the fact in mind that this committee constructed a course on the basis of an eight-year unit rather than of a six-year unit. Now, if we are to adopt a three-unit course in the place of a two-unit course, we must construct a history program based on the three-unit idea. We must have a unit course for the first six grades; a course which all must take and which must at the same time be worth taking even if the pupil never goes on to the junior high school. It must also offer the best preparation for the courses for the following years, if the student decides to continue his education into these grades. Such a principle when put into actual practice will demand a somewhat different course in history from the one proposed by the Committee of Eight.

Another observation which is worth pointing out from the facts exhibited by the tabulation is the lack of uniformity in the matter of the grades composing the junior high school. The following

TABULAR VIEW OF HISTORY STUDY IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS*

City	State	Grade VII	Grade VIII	Grade IX
Grand Rapids.....	Mich....	B—Local civics. 30 min. a wk. A—U.S. Hist. to 1783	B—Entire field of U.S. Hist. A—U.S. Hist. since 1789, and Civics based upon *American Government* by Haskins.	B and A—Anc. Hist. to about 800 A.D.
Jackson.....	Mich....	B—No Hist. A—U.S. Hist. 3 pds. a wk.	B and A—U.S. Hist. 3 pds. a wk.	B and A—Civics. 2 pds. a wk.
State Dept.....	Mich....	U.S. Hist. 2 pds. a wk. (Req.)	U.S. Hist. and Civics. 5 pds. a wk. (Req.)	Anc. Hist. 5 pds. a wk. (Elec.)
Muskegon.....	Mich....	U.S. Hist. (Traditional course)	B—Finish U.S. Hist. A—Civics	Anc. Hist. (Elec.)
Kalamazoo.....	Mich....	B—No Hist. A—U.S. Hist. 4 pds. a wk. (Req.)	U.S. Hist. 4 pds. a wk. (Req.)	Anc. Hist. (Elec.)
Austin.....	Minn....	A—U.S. Hist. 3 pds. a wk. (Req.)	U.S. Hist. and Civics. 5 pds. a wk. (Req.)	Anc. Hist. (Elec.)
Columbus.....	Ohio	European Background of U.S. Hist. Emphasis on England. 3 pds. a wk.	U.S. Hist. 4 or 5 pds. a wk.	American Citizenship. 2 or 3 pds. a wk.
Blue Island.....	Ill.....	U.S. Hist. (Req.)	Community Civics. (Req.)	Anc. Hist. (Elec.)
East Chicago.....	Ind.....	U.S. Hist. 5 60-min. pds. a wk. ($\frac{1}{2}$ devoted to rec., $\frac{1}{2}$ to study)	Indust. Hist. and Civics. 5 pds. a wk. (in indust. course only)	No Hist. in any course this year

*For the sake of uniformity, the first half of the work in a grade is designated B and the last half A. Some school systems use the reverse order for such designations. Whenever the data at hand were specific enough, these divisions have been made. The time devoted to the subject has also been given in all cases where it was possible to secure it. The same has been done where it was known whether the subject is required or elective. Some cities to which inquiries were not sent are included in the tabulation. Since the desired information in such cases was already at hand, there was no cause for further inquiry.

Rochester	Minn.	U.S. Hist. 5 pds. a wk. (Req.)	No Hist. in any course this year	Community Civics. ½ yr., 5 pds. a wk. (Req.) Indust. Hist. (Elec.)
Muskogee	Okla.	A—U.S. Hist. 5 45-min. pds. a wk.	B—No Hist. offered A—Civics. 5 45-min. pds. a wk.	Anc. Hist. or Indust. Hist. 5 45-min. pds. a wk. (Elec.)
Faribault	Minn.	U.S. Hist. and Civics. A three-and-two subject. Much emphasis on Indust. Hist. Texts: Foreman, Dunn, and Moore		Full year's course in citizenship. Text: Guitteau
Murray City	Utah.	U.S. Hist. 1 yr., taken in either of these grades, 3 45-min. pds. a wk.		European Hist. to about 1700, 5 45-min. pds. a wk.
Salem	Ore.	U.S. Hist. and Civics. 2 pds. a wk.	U.S. Hist. and Civics. 3 pds. a wk.	Anc. Hist. 5 pds. a wk.
Goldfield	Ia.	Elementary European Hist. 5 60-min. pds. a wk. (Req.)	U.S. Hist. 5 60-min. pds. a wk. (Req.) Also Civics. 5 60-min. pds. a wk. (Req.)	Anc. Hist. 5 60-min. pds. a wk. (Elec.)
Houston (No 8th grade in this school)	Tex.	B—Hist. of Tex. A—U.S. Hist. to 1789. 4 pds. a wk. (Both req.)	(8th yr.) B—Finish U.S. Hist. A—Greek Hist. 4 pds. a wk. (Both req.)	(9th yr.) B—Roman Hist. A—M. and M. Hist. 4 pds. a wk. (Both elec.)
Lincoln	Neb.	B—No Hist. A—European Hist. 5 30-min. pds. a wk.	B—U.S. Hist. to 1829 A—Finish U.S. Hist.; also Civics. 5 30-min. pds. a wk.	B—Community and Vocational Civics A—European Hist. to about 800 A.D.
Seymour	Ind.	U.S. Hist. to 1776. (Req.)	Finish U.S. Hist. (Req.)	Anc. Hist. to about 800 A.D. (Req.)
Los Angeles	Cal.	B—No Hist. A—U.S. Hist. 5 pds. a wk. (Req.)	B—U.S. Hist. A—U.S. Hist. and Civics. 5 pds. a wk. (Req.)	B—Greek Hist. A—Roman Hist. 5 pds. a wk. (Elec.)

TABULAR VIEW OF HISTORY STUDY IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS—*Continued*

City	State	Grade VII	Grade VIII	Grade IX
Salt Lake City	Utah	Reading course in English Hist. Stories	Thorough course in U.S. Hist. given during these two years	
Solvay	N.Y.	U.S. Hist. as outlined by Committee of Eight for these grades. Much emphasis on current events		Current Hist. on basis of problems
Berkeley	Cal.	B—Europe from 4th cent. to about 1453 A—Europe from 1453 to 1763, and the colonization of the New World. 5 pds. a wk. (Req.)	B—U.S. Hist. from 1763 to about 1870 A—Recent U.S. Hist. and Civics. 5 pds. a wk. (Req.)	B—Pacific Coast Hist. Discovery and Exploration A—California. Her Govt. and Other Problems. 5 pds. a wk. (Elec.)
Springfield	Mass.	U.S. Hist. to 1783	Finish U.S. Hist.	English Hist. as related to Hist. of U.S.
Muncie	Ind.	Junior H.S. does not include this grade	B—U.S. Hist. from 1789 to 1850 A—U.S. Hist. from 1850 to present	B—Greek Hist. A—Roman Hist.
Evansville	Ind.		B—U.S. Hist. from 1829 to 1865 A—U.S. Hist. from 1865 to the present. Community Civics in both B and A	B—Indust. Hist. of American People A—Civics
Crawfordsville	Ind.	B—Civics and Health A—U.S. Hist. to about 1776	Finish U.S. Hist. Current Events	Junior H.S. does not include this grade in this city and those following
Richmond	Ind.	B—European Background of U.S. Hist. A—U.S. Hist. to 1789	B—Finish U.S. Hist. A—Civics	

Lansdowne	Pa.	U.S. Hist. from 1763 to 1845	Finish U.S. Hist. Civics also	
Crookston	Minn.	*Academic*—U.S. Hist. Text: Benton and Bourne *Commercial*—European Beginnings of Amer. Hist. *Industrial*—English History	*Academic*—U.S. Hist. Text: Mace *Commercial and Industrial*—U.S. Hist. Text: Perry and Price. Also Community Civics	
Santa Monica	Cal.	U.S. Hist. Six wks. on Local Hist.	B—Finish U.S. Hist. A—Civics	
Oakland	Cal.	U.S. Hist.	Civics and Hygiene	
New Britain	Conn.	U.S. Hist. to 1789	Finish U.S. Hist.	
Decatur (Grade 7 B not in Jun. H.S.)	Ill.	A—U.S. Hist. from about 1750 to 1789. Civics also	B—U.S. Hist. from about 1789 to 1865 A—Finish U.S. Hist. Civics in both B and A	
Burlington	Vt.	Follow report of Committee of Eight. Civics in both grades also		
Alameda	Cal.	B—U.S. Hist. from 1754 to 1783 A—U.S. Hist. from 1783 to 1829 Civics in both B and A	B—U.S. Hist. from 1829 to 1865 A—Finish U.S. Hist. 1st 10 wks. Last 10 wks. on review of expan. and devel. of U.S. Civics in both B and A	
Roanoke	Va.	(Grade VI) U.S. Hist.	(Grade VII) B—Finish U.S. Hist. A—Civics	(Grade VIII) Anc. Hist.
Charlotte	N.C.	(Grade VI) U.S. Hist.	(Grade VII) Hist. of N.C.	(Grade VIII) Advanced U.S. Hist.
Clarksville	Tenn.	(Grade VI) U.S. Hist.	(Grade VII) B—Finish U.S. Hist. A—Hist. of Tenn.	

combinations are noted: VIII and IX; VII and VIII; VII-A and VIII; VII, VIII, and IX; VI, VII, and VIII; VI and VII. The general tendency is clearly toward including Grades VII, VIII, and IX in this new type of school. While the term "junior high school" does not now carry with it a meaning as exact as does the general term "high school," yet there are wholesome signs of a coming uniformity in the use of the former term similar to that now implied in the latter.

The voluntary comments in some of the answers to the inquiry brought out facts that the tabulation does not show. Chief among these is the dissatisfaction with the course of study in its present form. A few quotations will show what some superintendents are thinking. One says: "I do not feel that we have worked out the matter of history in our junior high school to our complete satisfaction." Another writes: "With respect to history in the junior high school I must say that we do not yet have the problem satisfactorily solved. At present we are following the identical plan as before the organization of the junior school." No doubt, the following somewhat extended quotation fairly represents the situation now facing many superintendents who are in the midst of organizing junior high schools:

> We have not changed our history course and I am not just sure yet what will be done. In all probability, however, we shall offer United States history in the seventh and eighth years, that is, in the first and second years of the junior high schools. At present we are teaching ancient history in the ninth grade. I rather believe that some change will be made. I am not sure yet just what it will be. I would prefer to have the history work done in the senior high school. It is very likely, however, that we shall have to use the textbooks that are now published, in which case it will be impossible for us to make very great changes in the history course. I am not sure but that it may prove the best thing to devote the three years of the junior high schools to a strong course in United States history and civil government, stressing industrial growth and development. It seems to me that the most serious problems in connection with the junior high schools now being organized arise from the reorganization of the course of study. I cannot but feel that the elementary schools, that is, the first six grades, should equip the child with all of the mechanics of school training, and that there should be a larger opportunity for specialization along vocational and cultural lines in the junior high school.

In order to show where some people, who have passed beyond the stage represented in the foregoing quotations, have already

arrived or are about to arrive, a few actual or proposed programs of history for junior high schools are submitted. The following is a brief synopsis of the Berkeley, California, course. Since this city was one of the pioneers in forming schools of the type under consideration, the history program furnishes an example of some mature thinking which has had time to express itself in realities.

GRADE VII: THE EUROPEAN BASIS OF AMERICAN HISTORY

Low Seventh. Europe from the fourth century to about 1453.

1. Striking facts in the development of the nations that were active in the colonization of America later, as well as the elements of the revival of learning in Italy as a preparation for the geographical discoveries and Italy's contribution thereto.
2. Cross-sections of the life of the people, especially about the tenth and eleventh centuries, and again after the innovations brought about by the commercial development following the Crusades. (A basis for the cutting-off of trade routes and the eager search for new routes.)
3. Religious and political conditions about 1453.

High Seventh. Europe from 1453 to 1763, and the colonization of the New World. (Emphasis on England and the English colonies.)

1. Rise and decline of the great Spanish empire.
2. Break between England and the Pope, and England and Spain.
3. English sea-rovers, and the development of English supremacy on the sea.
4. Religious and political condition under the Stuart monarchs that brought on great emigrations, colonization of the New World, and in a way the transfer of the Elizabethan spirit to America.
5. The English colonies in America.

GRADE VIII: AMERICAN HISTORY AND CITIZENSHIP

Low Eighth. The United States, 1763 to about 1870.

1. Causes of secession from England, i.e., principles for which Colonial leaders stood. (Attention to the fact that Colonists were not unanimously in favor of and Englishmen not unanimously against these, i.e., Tories vs. Whigs.)
2. The Revolution as a necessary war and therefore to be fought out at all costs.
3. The inauguration of the new government. Emphasis on the value of the services rendered by Washington, Franklin, Hamilton, and Jefferson.
4. Westward expansion. (Much attention to geography and value of acquisitions in natural resources.)

5. Unfortunate division of the people along industrial, commercial, and finally political lines on a geographical basis.
6. The War of the Rebellion, a result of honest differences of opinion. Blunders of southern statesmen in bringing on the war.
7. Problems of Reconstruction. Blunders of northern statesmen.

High Eighth. Recent United States history and civics.

1. Industrial development.
2. Economic nature of our problems: need of a new party alignment.
3. Development of a clean civic spirit—a social hygiene to keep in healthy condition the "body politic": the spirit rather than the form of the machinery of our government.

GRADE IX: HISTORY AND PROBLEMS OF THE PACIFIC COAST

Low Ninth. History of the Pacific Coast. Discovery and exploration.

1. Review conditions in Europe. (See seventh-grade work.) Follow the line of Spanish colonization (much as was done with the English colonization in the eighth year), proceeding from the known world in 1490 to show by means of a series of maps the revealing of South America, what is now Central America, and the Pacific Coast of North America.
2. Spanish occupation, especially of California. The mission system.
3. The exploration and settlement of the Pacific Northwest, with emphasis on the American pioneer.
4. Summary of the history of Spain in the New World, the secession of the Spanish colonies, and the attitude of the United States (the Monroe Doctrine).
5. Meeting of the Spanish and Anglo-Saxon civilizations. The Mexican War. California a state in the American Union.

High Ninth. California: her government and other problems.

1. California as a state: her recent history and her government. (State constitution and California *Blue Book*.)
2. Local government: the county and city. (Detailed study of the city charter.)
3. The function of municipal government: streets, public works, municipal ownership, etc.
4. Our relations with Latin America. The Panama Canal. Commercial regulations with these countries.
5. Our relations with the Orient. Problems of trade and immigration. Our policy toward China. (The Hay Doctrine.)

Two tentative courses in history came in reply to the writer's request for information along this line. Since these represent healthy efforts at revision and reorganization, it seems worth while to quote a few extracts from each of them. The following is a

general outline of the work in history which should be offered in grades VII, VIII, and IX, according to a preliminary report on the course of study in history for the Columbus, Ohio, high schools.

GRADE VII: European background of American history, being largely English history, with a review of the geography of Europe. Interest course, reciting three times a week.

GRADE VIII: United States history, emphasizing biographical features, the Colonial period, etc. Review geography of America. Training citizens is more important than teaching facts. Examination course, reciting four or five times a week.

GRADE IX: American citizenship, being a study of the relations of citizens, young and old, to government, with the aim uppermost of producing intelligent and good citizens. Interest course, reciting two or three times a week.

A subcommittee on courses of study in history for the junior and senior high and prevocational schools of Lincoln, Nebraska, recently reported for the junior high school the following course in history: in the second semester of Grade VII, a course in European history is proposed. It begins with a brief survey of Egyptian and Indian civilization, then traces the historical development westward through Greece and Rome, and finally through the Middle Ages, culminating in the rise of the modern European nations and the events leading to the discovery of America, placing special emphasis in the last part of the course on English history and the movements that were carried over from the Old World to the New.

For grade VIII a course in American history and civics is recommended. The first semester of this course deals with the history of America from its discovery to about 1829. It calls for special emphasis on the period of discovery and colonization and slight emphasis on the early federal administrations, the belief being that their issues can be but poorly understood by young students. The second semester of this grade finishes the work in American history, supplementing it with a study of contemporaneous European history, placing strong emphasis on current events and movements that furnish the living issues of the day. Community civics is also recommended for the last eight weeks of this year, emphasis to be placed upon local civic spirit and problems.

A course in community and vocational civics is proposed for the first semester of Grade IX. It includes a study of city government departments and the work of each, parks, streets, protection and care of public health, water supply, amusements and the like, schools, state government, outline of national government, and general governmental terms. In the second semester a course in European history to about 800 A.D. is recommended. This course is also to be opened to students in the first semester of this grade who do not elect to continue the work in civics.

On the whole, these three programs of work in history represent a determined effort on the part of administrators and teachers to save the subject from the ban it is now under in many places, and to make it what it should be—a living, helpful, and vital reality in the life that schoolboys and girls are now living. As might be expected the Berkeley, California, course shows evidence of more mature thinking than either of the other two. It might be said for these, however, that their efforts are certainly in the right direction, and that with a few years of actual operation their courses will take on the same maturity that one finds in the Berkeley course.

The writer wishes now on the basis of all the foregoing, on the basis of the suggestions in replies to his inquiry not brought out heretofore, and on the basis of his own convictions, resulting from a series of years spent in studying, teaching, and supervising history work in both the grades and the high school, to offer some general principles and suggestions which he believes to be of great importance in this age of the reorganization of history instruction in what we have decided to call the junior high school. Suggestions from any quarter will no doubt receive a hearty welcome from those who are now facing this difficult problem. That it is really a problem with some people is evidenced by the quotations on another page. In fact, the call for help in this matter was strongly borne in upon the writer as he read and reread the answers to his inquiry.

Before any of us can proceed very far in the solution of this important question, some general principles will have to be agreed upon. To the writer's thinking, the following points are of much

importance in this connection. First, it must be recognized that the junior high-school history course is to follow a course that all have had thorough training in, and precede a course which all may or may not take. Secondly, the fact must be recognized that not all the pupils will finish the three years of the junior high school. For this reason, the history course must be planned so that it will be proportionately as vital and of as much value to the student who takes one or two years as to the one who takes it all. Another way of saying this same thing is to insist that the course must not be planned wholly with the idea in mind that all will take it in its entirety. In the third place, the course will be planned for the sake of the pupils taking it, rather than for the sake of the subject, history. While it will be desirable and somewhat necessary to hold to chronology and some other important historical elements, yet these should not dominate the course. Fourthly, that there is a certain amount of history which all pupils must know before they can do any subsequent work in this subject with the best results. And, finally, the history courses in these grades must be made to function in the form of a key to a right understanding of present-day conditions. This means that history must have a practical purpose and be to some extent socialized. It also means that developments which have been influential in producing present-day conditions will receive much emphasis. These facts will be determined not so much from the text as by an analysis of the conditions in the country at large and in any particular community, which require a historical background for a proper understanding.

Now, on the basis of the foregoing five fundamental principles, the writer wishes to propose in a somewhat general fashion a course of study for a junior high school made up of grades VII, VIII, and IX. A course in European history much like the one outlined by the Committee of Eight for Grade VI seems the best one with which to begin in this new school. To follow this, there seems to be nothing better than a two-year course in United States history, community civics, and local history. The ancient history that is now taught during the last year of some junior high schools had better be omitted entirely. It is there more because it chanced

to fall in the work of this year before the grade was placed in this new type of school, than because of any fundamental principle of organization.

Before the principles mentioned above can be seen to apply to the course herein presented, some elaboration seems necessary. The course in general European history in Grade VII is necessary to systematize the work done in history during the preceding six years; it also gives a desirable background for the work in history in the senior high school. Thus it conforms to our first principle mentioned above. In order to make this course of real value even to those who drop out of school at the end of this year, some extensions will have to be made to the proposals of the Committee of Eight. Chief among these is the one that will demand near the close of the year an "over-view" of the entire history of the United States. This means that instead of stopping at about 1607 the teacher will push on into the history of the United States proper, and send the children out of this grade with the ability to tell a brief story of our country's history in its entirety. This story will be of much value to the student as a perspective, whether he continues his work into the next grade or closes his formal school career at this point. The continuation of the story in chronological form down to the present time, and the insistence that all know it, satisfy principles two and three, mentioned above. The fourth and last one can be applied by the proper selection of facts and topics to be studied. There seems to be no objection to including in this year the study of some civic topics. Conditions the history of which can be traced back into ancient times will be given precedence for reasons too evident to mention.

The three lines of work recommended for grades VIII and IX will parallel each other throughout these years. To spend a year or even a half-year on local history in either of these grades seems a waste of much valuable time. And since history is to serve as a key to a right understanding of present-day civic problems, it becomes quite necessary to have the study of civics extend over the entire two or even three years, rather than concentrate upon it in any one year or half-year. In fact, this arrangement of these subjects is quite necessary, if they are to serve equally well those

who drop the course at any point and those who complete it. To devote a specific half-year to civics, and to offer this subject nowhere else in the course means that pupils who are forced to leave before this term is reached must go out into life without this valuable training for citizenship.

The United States history for these two grades will begin at about 1607. The general perspective gained in the last half of the previous grade will first be reviewed. In fact, this story will need to be told over and over during the remaining two years. It will not be necessary to spend much time on the period from 1607 to 1763. After a brief survey of the colonizing activities during the period, and an account of the final struggle for supremacy between France and England, a rather elaborate study will be made of Colonial life and institutions in about 1763. A great deal of time can profitably be spent on this cross-section view. Comparisons can be made with present-day conditions, and the work on the whole made very practical and interesting. The period between 1763 and 1789 will be treated much like the preceding one. The political thread running through the period will be considerably elaborated on, as compared with what has been included in the "over-view" already made. The major part of the time spent on this period will be devoted to a study of the social, economic, and political conditions of the country just prior to 1787, culminating in a study of the formation and ratification of the constitution.

Either of two methods of procedure may be followed after the year 1789. On making sure that the pupils understand the main current of the history from this date to, say, 1829, certain phases running through the period may be studied in some detail. For example, the social progress and development, including a study of intellectual life, religious activities, social and moral betterment, home life of the people, and conditions of labor, might be emphasized. Industrial and commercial development, and the political struggles, might also be treated similarly. This same method of procedure could be applied equally well to the periods from 1829 to 1865, and from 1865 to the present time.

Such a method of procedure as proposed in the preceding paragraph would not serve equally well for all classes of students.

For those who expect to complete the junior high-school course, the method might be profitably followed; but for those who may not be able to do this, there is probably a better method. For these, and for those who are in the industrial and commercial courses, a better plan would be first to go over the main features of each of the foregoing periods, and then to trace the history of a few important topics from their origin to their present condition. For example, the history of agriculture, manufacturing, labor systems, and the like, could be traced from simple beginnings in Colonial times to present-day complexities. Such a method would give the teacher all the freedom necessary to adapt the course to local conditions as well as to the interests and capacities of the children. In working up these topics the counter-chronological method of approach could no doubt be used as effectively as the chronological, and, since the pupils have had a course in European history, there is no reason why the counter-chronological story should end on this side of the Atlantic.

Besides the foregoing three rather comprehensive topics, many others should be treated historically. Professor Bobbitt in his *What the Schools Teach and Might Teach* proposes the following suggestive list: sociological aspects of war, territorial expansion, race problems, tariff and free trade, transportation, money systems, our insular possessions, growth in population, trusts, banks and banking, immigration, capital and labor, education, inventions, suffrage, centralization of government, strikes and lockouts, panics and business depressions, commerce, taxation, labor unions, foreign commerce, postal service, the army, government control of corporations, municipal government, the navy, factory labor, wages, courts of law, charities, crime, fire protection, roads and road transportation, newspapers and magazines, natural defense, conservation of national resources, the liquor problem, parks and playgrounds, housing conditions, mining, health and sanitation, pensions, unemployment, child labor, women in industry, the cost of living, pure food control, saving banks, water supply of cities, prisons, recreations and amusements, co-operative buying and selling, insurance and hospitals.

In studying such topics as the foregoing one can correlate local history, community civics, and history in a very desirable manner. The local community will in a large measure determine the selection of the topics to be studied. After working out the local history of any particular industry, its history in the country as a whole may be considered. Such a method of procedure is quite possible as well as desirable with pupils who have had a thorough drill in the general story of our country's history. With this general perspective as a background it is quite possible to make the history of any one development intelligible; without this perspective, such a method would be impractical.

A course of study in history and civics intended for a junior high school composed of grades VII, VIII, and IX, formulated according to the general principles of organization, and selection of materials herein presented, and taught in conformance with the methods of procedure proposed, will, to the writer's thinking, restore these subjects to a place of importance, in this new type of school, commensurate with their value in training citizens to participate in a government in which both men and women are coming to have such an important part.

THE "SIX-THREE-THREE PLAN" AT MT. VERNON, INDIANA

E. J. LLEWELYN
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I. PURPOSE

In order to give better service to the community, the schools of Mt. Vernon, Indiana, have been reorganized on the six-three-three plan. By giving greater elective privileges, similar to those which have been given in the regular high school for several years past, it was the purpose of the school management to eliminate the large number of pupils who become discouraged and leave school in the seventh and eighth grades or at the end of the eighth grade. By organizing the junior high school in the same manner in which the senior high school is organized, the purpose was to eliminate the break which comes at the end of the eighth grade just when the pupil is ready to enter high school. By giving pupils who make a certain minimum grade in their work in the seventh grade an opportunity of electing Latin, German, algebra, or industrial history, the purpose was to supply a greater motivation for study in the seventh grade in order to secure the elective privileges in the eighth grade.

II. PLAN OF ORGANIZATION

The intermediate grades (Grades VB to VIA, inclusive) are assembled from all over the city in the Main Street Building, which had been used for grammar-school purposes. In this building the work is semi-departmental. One instructor teaches penmanship in all the rooms; another instructor teaches spelling in all the rooms; another teaches music and drawing in all the rooms; and another teaches history and hygiene in all the rooms. The regular supervisors of domestic science, manual training, and music and drawing visit this building once each week and supervise the work of the regular teachers in their respective subjects.

The junior high school, composed of Grades VII, VIII, and IX, has been assigned to the upper floor and the basement of the new

Central School Building. In this building a large assembly room and eleven classrooms, besides the necessary offices, etc., are devoted to this work.

In the seventh grade no electives are allowed, with the exception of the industrial work (manual training, agriculture, sewing, cooking, music, and drawing). However, the pupils are told that, if they make a grade of 87 per cent or more on the average in Grades VIIB and VIIA, they will be allowed to elect other subjects. The course of study has been so organized in the seventh grade in English, in arithmetic, and in history, that all of the essentials in these subjects are covered when the pupil has completed Grade VIIA. As soon as any pupil has made an average, for two succeeding semesters, of 87 per cent or more in either one or all of the subjects indicated, he is allowed to elect Latin or German, algebra or industrial history, in the next succeeding half-year, provided that it is the wish of his parents that he do so. If he does not make a grade of 87 per cent or more, he is required to continue the work in those subjects in which he fails to make the given minimum percentage. The course of study is organized so that there is additional and practical work for the pupil in Grade VIII who fails to make the minimum grade. A pupil is given full high-school credit for such regular high-school subjects as he is permitted to elect to take in the junior high school.

In the eighth grade, all of the regular eighth-grade subjects are offered, both in Grade VIIIB and in Grade VIIIA, for such pupils as fail to make the minimum grade which permits them to elect the high-school subjects. Courses in Latin, German, algebra, and industrial history are also offered for the pupils who do succeed in making the minimum grade and whose parents permit them to elect these subjects.

In the ninth grade, the regular high-school subjects are offered with the usual elective privileges.

III. RESULTS

The results obtained since the reorganization of the school system as indicated above are very satisfactory. The new stimulus for study and attendance supplied by this scheme is very effective.

It is rarely that a pupil leaves school in Grade VII or Grade VIII unless it is absolutely necessary because of illness.

The teaching work in Grades VB to VIA, inclusive, is very much more efficient than it was under the old régime. The teaching work in the junior high school is more efficient than was the teaching work in the Grades VII and VIII prior to the reorganization. The junior high-school teachers feel that they must reach the same standard of efficiency as that reached by the senior high-school teachers.

The pupils from Grades VIIIB and VIIIA who are permitted to take the high-school subjects seldom fail to make the high-school credit. They enter the classes with the regular ninth-grade pupils and, with but one or two exceptions, they have always made *higher grades* than the regular ninth-grade pupils.

This system of organization has taken care of the slow pupil, and, what is more important, probably, it has made a way for the *bright pupil* to forge ahead and to receive a proper amount of recognition for so doing. Owing to the fact that the eighth-grade pupils who succeed in making the minimum grade go into the classes with the regular ninth-grade pupils, no additional teaching force is necessary to handle the school under this plan of reorganization. In fact, there is one teacher less now in the force from Grade VIIB to Grade XIIA, inclusive, than there was two years ago.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

There is no possible doubt that some form of reorganization in our school system is necessary if the public schools of our country are to serve the best interest of *all* the people. By some scheme or other, the break must come earlier in the course than formerly. The logical place for this break seems to be between Grades VI and VII, so far as our present knowledge of the situation goes. It is immaterial whether the six-three-three plan or the six-six plan is used. For Mt. Vernon, the convenience of our buildings seems to favor the six-three-three plan, as indicated above. Each community will have to solve this problem in the manner best fitted to serve the interests of *all its people*. In this matter of reorganization, as in all other school affairs, what will serve the needs of one community may not serve the needs of any other community.

BOOKS RECEIVED

A. S. BARNES CO., CHICAGO

The New Barnes Spelling Books: Book One. By EDWARD MANDEL. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 159. $0.28.

The Socialized Recitation. By WILLIAM T. WHITNEY. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 100. $0.54 postpaid.

Songs for the Seasons. By ESTELLE P. CUSHMAN and MAUDE M. ANDREWS. Cloth. Pp. 54. $0.75.

The Rhythms of Childhood. By CAROLINE CRAWFORD and ELIZABETH ROSE FOGG. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 84. $1.50 net.

MACMILLAN, NEW YORK

Constructive Geometry. Exercises in Elementary Geometric Drawing. Prepared under the direction of EARLE RAYMOND HEDRICK. Paper. Illustrated. Pp. 75.

Robert of Chester's Latin Translation of the Algebra of Al-Khowarizmi. With an Introduction, Critical Notes, and an English Version by LOUIS CHARLES KARPINSKI. University of Michigan Studies, Humanistic Series. Paper. Illustrated. Pp. 164. $2.00.

D. C. HEATH & CO., NEW YORK

English Derivatives. A Practical Classbook. By B. K. BENSON. Cloth. Pp. 166. $0.44.

Lese-Übungen für Kinder. By MARTIN SCHMIDHOFER. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 102. $0.35.

GINN & CO., BOSTON

Young and Field Literary Readers: Book One. By ELLA FLAGG YOUNG and WALTER TAYLOR FIELD. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 160. $0.36.

MANUAL ARTS PRESS, PEORIA

Problems in Farm Woodwork. By SAMUEL A. BLACKBURN. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 129. $1.00.

RAND, McNALLY & CO., CHICAGO

The Story of Old Europe and Young America. By WILLIAM H. MACE and EDWIN P. TANNER. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 334. $0.65.

CHARLES E. MERRILL CO., NEW YORK

The Merrill Readers: Fourth Reader. By FRANKLIN B. DYER and MARY J. BRADY. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 320. $0.52.

WORLD BOOK CO., YONKERS-ON-HUDSON

Everyday Number Stories. By GEORGE BAKER LONGAN, EMMA SERL, and FLORENCE ELLEDGE. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 136. $0.40.

LITTLE, BROWN & CO., BOSTON

The Three Things. By MARY RAYMOND SHIPMAN ANDREWS. Cloth. Pp. 58. $0.50 net.

Tad and His Father. By F. LAURISTON BULLARD. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 102. $0.50.

PUTNAM, NEW YORK

Europa's Fairy Tales. Restored and retold by JOSEPH JACOBS. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 264. $1.25.

KANSAS STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, EMPORIA

Report of a Survey of the Public Schools of Leavenworth, Kansas. By the BUREAU OF EDUCATIONAL MEASUREMENTS AND STANDARDS. Paper. Pp. 202.

The Cost of Instruction in Kansas High Schools. By WALTER S. MONROE. Paper. Pp. 35.

The Kansas Silent Reading Test. By. F. J. KELLY. Paper. Pp. 37.